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ABSTRACT

Extending research findings that strong administrative leadership is the most important influence on a school system, this paper argues that improved leadership, aided by models of leadership style and behavior, can improve instructional effectiveness. Because a significant correlation has been found between teachers' behavior and student learning, the authors reason, the effects of administrative supervision of teachers can be seen in student learning. To assist administrators in being aware of their leadership styles and the degree of their effectiveness, two theoretical models are outlined and coordinated. One model, the Managerial Grid, reflects administrators' leadership styles in weighing the relative importance of people and products in decision-making. The other model cited, the Identification of the Maturity Level of Subordinates, would allow administrators to gauge management situations. It is suggested that administrators combine the two approaches to understand their leadership styles and to use appropriate motivators for various groups. To achieve organizational change in education, the paper concludes, administrative leadership must develop a climate for instructional effectiveness. (JW)

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Leadership Style: "The Missing Factor" in Developing Instructionally Effective Schools

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ABSTRACT

The primary objective of this paper is to present some current thinking and theorizing about how past research efforts might be used to take into account the impact of one factor, leadership of the administrator, on the instructional effectiveness of schools. Strong Administrative Leadership was identified in the literature as one major factor influencing the effectiveness of the school system. A correlation between teacher behavior and student learning formed the thesis of this paper that if leadership behavior of the administrator is improved under certain circumstances then the instructional system will be affected positively and thereby create a more effective school system.

A summary of research on instructional effectiveness of public schools and a description of the present state of the art is presented. The Managerial Grid combined with the Identification of the Maturity Level of the Subordinate is suggested as a conceptual framework for administrators and teachers who face differentiated staffing patterns.

Leadership is discussed in terms of style, behavior, and effectiveness as well as in terms of flexibility of style and appropriate behavior. Leadership behaviors for "high maturity" and "high maturity" vs. "low maturity subordinates presented in two tables.

Some implications of the application of the two models for more effective leadership of administrators towards a more instructionally effective school system are discussed.

Leadership Style. "The Missing Factor" in Developing Instructionally Effective Schools

INTRODUCTION

The effectiveness of an educational system and its efficient organization and utilization of resources have concerned educators since the first quarter of the 20th Century (Guthrie 1980). The interest of educators, of course, was hampered by the lack of adequate or acceptable output measures. In 1960 Callahan quoted Spaulding as having said in 1913:

> I know of no single adequate measure of efficiency of a school either relative or absolute. Some index or measure which could be used is the percentage of children each year of age in the school district that the school enrolls; the average number of days attendance secured annually from each child; the percentage of the children of each age who are allowed to complete their schooling.

The same is still true today. Presently, there exists no consensus on what an effective measure of education should be. The measures generally discussed are actually quantitative measures of the efficiency with which the resources of an organization are converted into its products. This is sometimes referred to as "economic efficiency." Conversly effectiveness is a measure of the degree of satisfaction the consumer has with the product, thus it is rather a measure of quality. An operational definition of efficiency might involve doing things accurately within minimum time and with the least resources. Effectiveness may be operationally defined as doing everything that is neccessary to accomplish organizational goals. A definition of the term instructional effectiveness is still rather elusive, however, for the purpose of this paper it will be defined as: doing everything that is neccessary to accomplish the instructional goals of the school system.

Besides a lack of consensus on what factors are indicators of effectiveness there is also a lack of consensus, and some degree of confusion among educators and researchers about where to focus their research efforts. Should they focus on measures of efficiency (quantity) so that if efficiency is achieved by about 75% it may then be called effective ? And, if efficiency is examined in terms of the best use of resources, e.g., human, facilities, curriculum, and equipment, can these findings be transferred to another time and school-setting? At any rate how can the transition from quantitative measures to qualitative outcomes be made? In addition, there exists no agreement among the consumers of the educational system about just how to define the concept "quality education." The consumer may be a parent, a student, industry, or the public at large.

FINDINGS ON FACTORS AFFECTING INSTRUCTIONAL EFFECTIVENESS IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

It is presumed that some degree of correlation exists between the efficient use of resources and the effectiveness of the system. Early studies (Coleman 1969; Mosteller and Moynihan, eds. 1972; Jencks et al. 1972; Cohen 1979, 1982; and Leverstein et al. 1979) examined the various resources one might find in a school system e.g., human, instructional, and financial. They compared schools along their average achievement levels which presumed that all schools are equally organized and make equal use of identical resources.

Later research is characterized by greater sensitivity to what happened to the individual student at a particular time in a particular school setting. This work compared among schools and different classrooms and their influence on student learning (Good, Biddle, and Brophy 1975; and Muruare 1975) and teacher behavior in the classroom such as classroom management, teacher/student interaction, teaching style and methods, and time management. Further research then focused on the identification and description of practices in the classroom and in the school system which appear particularly effective at improving student achievement from poor and minority backgrounds (Brookover et al. 1977). Successful teachers and/or schools then are carefully matched with their counterparts from poor and minority backgrounds who are less successful at reaching acceptable achievment levels. Through observing their interaction it became possible to isolate some behaviors which appear to contribute to instructional effectiveness.

Summary

Research linking teacher behavior to student learning is in the very early stages of development. However, some tentative and speculative findings (Brophy 1979a, 1979b) are reported. Although these findings are limited research efforts spanning the past 15 years they have yielded a body of knowledge which may prove useful for the classroom teacher or for the school administrator. Also, researchers have developed greater skills in asking appropriate questions thus increasing the probability of future success for their research efforts (Cohen 1982).

Research findings since 1972 increasingly identified characteristics of

schools and classrooms which apparently improve instructional effectiveness. A partial list below presents factors from research findings which appear to promote instructional effectiveness.

- STRONG ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP by the school principal, especially in regard to instructional matters;
- A SCHOOL CLIMATE CONDUCIVE TO LEARNING; a safe and orderly school free of discipline and vandalism problems;
- SCHOOL WIDE EMPHASIS ON BASIC SKILLS INSTRUCTION, which entails agreement among the professional staff that instruction in the basic skills is the primary goal of school;
- TEACHER EXPECTATIONS that students can reach high levels of achievement, regardless of pupil background; and
- A SYSTEM FOR MONITORING AND ASSESSING PUPIL PERFORMANCE WHICH IS TIED TO INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES which will provide feedback to students in a timely and constructive manner.

ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP AS FACTOR OF INSTRUCTIONALLY EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS

Based upon consistent empirical evidence, though acknowledged to be limited in scope and substance, strong administrative leadership ranks as the number one priority for improved instructional effectiveness. Leadership in this context may be defined as the ability, through whatever means, to influence the behavior of others in a particular direction. The terms leader and administrator are not synonymus. Leadership is only one aspect of his/her professional behavior and by no means constitutes all of it. Consequently, the focus of this paper is on the relationship betwen administrative leadership and instructional effectiveness. The following presents a theoretical framework depicting the nature of leadership and leadership behaviors as explained by several models and an application of two of the models for the development of

instructionally effective schools. A summary of the key points of the models will be discussed. Finally, the implications for working in instructionally effective schools will conclude this paper.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

When discussing leadership a clear distinction between leadership style and leadership behavior should be made. Leadership behavior generally refers to particular acts in which an administrator engages in the course of directing and coordinating the activities of the group. This may concern structuring activities, time management, praising or criticizing, or showing consideration for the feelings of others. Leadership style forms the basic need-structure of an individual which motivates behavior in different leadership situations. Leadership style refers to the consistency of goals or needs over different situations (Fiedler 1967). Important leadership behaviors of the same individual may differ in various situations, while the need structure which motivates these behaviors remains constant. In the literature the term leadership style is often used interchangeably with leadership behavior.

Leadership has long been the focus of theorists, researchers, and practitioners. However, in spite of their combined efforts, there is no universally accepted approach. It is apparent that effective leadership is essential for an effective organization and in turn of instructional effectiveness. It follows that if effective leadership is absent the performance of subordinates is typically poorer.

Much of the early focus on leadership identified the traits of effective leaders. Research described the intellectual, emotional, physical, and other personal characteristics of successful leaders. Four predominant personal-behavioral approaches surfaced and included:

(1) Employee centered and job centered (Likert 1961); these styles result in production improvements. The job centered style creates many problems after a while and the employee centered style has less problems.

(2) Initiating structure and consideration (Fleishman 1953, 1973; Stogdill, and Shartle 1956); The combination of initiating structure and consideration behavior which achieves organizational effectiveness is largely situational.

(3) Concern for production and concern for people (Blake and Mouton 1964); The 9,9 style is related to improvements in productivity, cost, and timeliness of output. The 9,9 style of leadership is strongly recommended for organizational effectiveness.

(4) Support, interaction facilitation, goal emphasis, and work facilitation (Bowers and Seashore 1966); leadership effectiveness is moderated by the technology of the organization where different dimensions predict different outcomes.

The theme evolving from contemporary leadership theory and research is referred to as the situational or contingency approach. There are several thoughts which can be described under two major headings, the Vroom-Yetton (1973, 1974) model of leadership and Fiedler's (1974) contingency model. Both assume that effective leadership depends on the situation. However, one major point of departure is over whether an effective leader can be trained. Fiedler is pessimistic about the success of training managers while Vroom's position is that managers can be trained to be effective if they are provided with a picture of their styles of leading.

This paper suggests that administrators be provided with a picture or conceptual framework of their style of leading as well as with situational factors that will shape their behavior. One tool which may assist the leader

with such a framework is the Managerial Grid (Blake, Mouton, and Bidwell 1962). Another deals with the Identification of a Subordinate's Maturity Level (Argyris 1957, 1964, 1965, 1970, 1974a, 1974b, 1976; Hersey and Blanchard 1977). These tools or approaches will be discussed in greater detail in another section of this paper.

Brophy (1979a, 1979b) found that recent research indicates a significant correlation between teacher behavior in teaching basic skills and student learning. Based on these findings he makes the following generalizations:

- Some teachers elicit more student learning than others while their teaching behavior is consistently different.
- Several teaching behaviors are consistently tied to more learning. However, few teaching behaviors are suitable for all contexts.
- Consistent time management for more teaching is characteristic of effective teachers.
- "Direct instruction" is effective for student learning of basic skills. This involves the provision of a structured curriculum with student responses, feedback, and academic focus on parts of the curriculum vs. the whole.

The correlation between teacher behavior and student learning as observed by Brophy forms the basis for this paper's thesis that if leadership behavior of the administrator is improved under certain circumstances then more effective instruction will be the outcome and consequently a more effective school system.

The problem of how administrators should behave to be most effective within their spheres of influence has come into focus increasingly in recent years. Many of the newer notions of leadership began to exert an impact and many designated "leaders" have been advised that in order to be more effective one must be more "democratic," more "authoritative," or more of this

and that. It is, perhaps, inevitable that some should wonder what their style really is or what it ought to be. Often they may not be quite certain how to behave when pushed into one direction by new knowledge, but at the same time be pulled into another by experience. They may find it difficult to reach a balance between leadership that shows concern for people; leadership directed at the productivity of the group; and leadership that is flexible depending on the situation.

APPLICATION OF THE MODELS FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF INSTRUCTIONALLY EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS

The Managerial Grid

One of the better known methods for identifying leadership style is through the Managerial Grid. Although the grid is not thoroughly supported by research, it may nevertheless prove useful for administrators who are interested in identifying their own leadership style and that of others. The grid may also serve as a framework for assessing leadership style BEFORE undertaking an in-service training program that is designed to move the administrator to a 9.9 style on the grid.

Blake and Mouton developed the conceptual framework for the grid assuming there is an unnecessary dichotomy in the minds of most administrators about their concern for people and concern for products. The authors assume that people and production concerns are complementary and that these concerns must be integrated to achieve efficient and effective performance.

Figure 1 shows the two important aspects of leadership (1) concern for people and (2) concern for production. These are measured and form axes

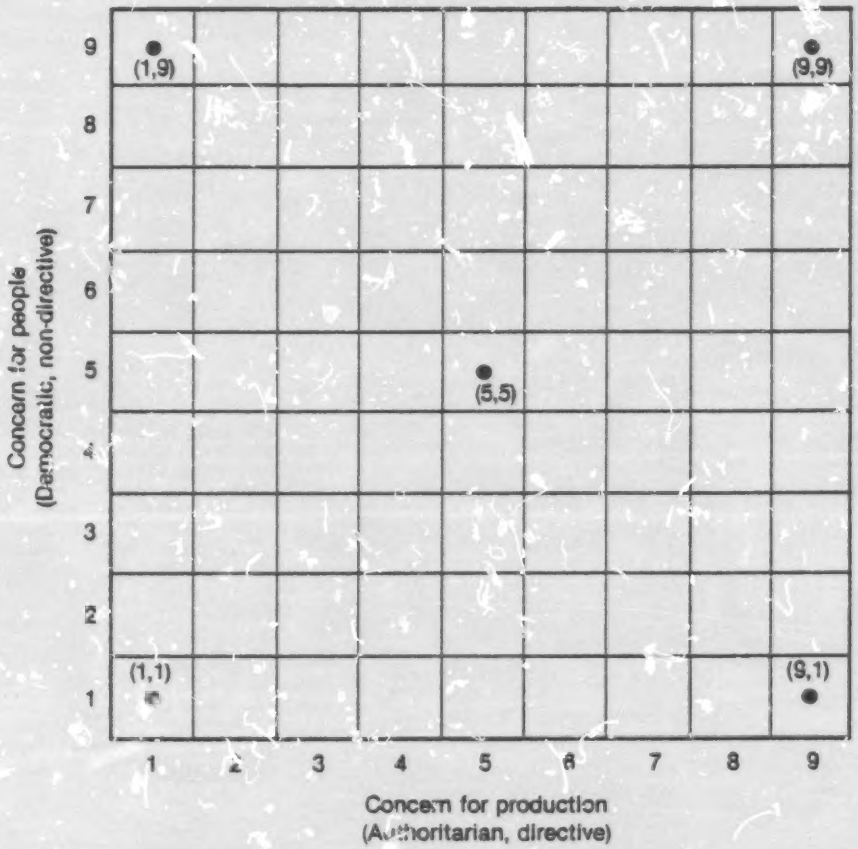

Figure 1. The Managerial Grid (Blake, Mouton, and Bidwell 1962).

on the grid. There are 81 possible positions on the grid, five of these are the most commonly discussed. The 1,1 point is sometimes called the dropout position. A leader with this type of score would show low concern for people and for production. While the 9,1 leader is primarily concerned with production task accomplishment and has little, if any, concern for people. This person wants to meet schedules and get the job done at all costs. The 1,9 style reflects a minimal concern for production coupled with a maximal concern for people; the 1,1 style reflects low concern for both. The 9,9 style is viewed as the ideal approach for integrating a maximum concern for production with a maximum concern for people. This leader regards the administrator's job as that of coach, advisor, and consultant.

The leader who fits the 5,5 position is a middle-of-the-road type who compromises between concern for people and concern for production by showing moderate interest in both. This position, according to Blake and Mouton, is a compromise and results in less than adequate attention to output and to the needs of the people.

Identification of the Maturity Level of Subordinates

While the grid provides some answers to the complex question of identifying leadership style, the key ingredient in determining leadership effectiveness, however, is the proper diagnosis and assessment of the maturity of subordinates. Argyris and Hersey and Blanchard examined this factor extensively in their work. Lester (1982) bases the combination of the grid and the identification of the maturity level of the subordinates on their firdings and suggests that leadership style must remain extremely flexible and that for this

reason the leader must possess the ability to accurately describe the present maturity level of subordinates to select the leadership behavior appropriate for a particular situation.

Lester proposes, as shown in Fig. 2, that the two factors identified on the grid which make up the leader's style: concern for people (democratic, nondirective) and concern for production (authoritative, directive) be combined with the identification of the maturity level of subordinates. Through the identification of the level of maturity of the subordinate a leader can then determine how much guidance and direction should be provided to the subordinate. Within this context "maturity" is be defined as the ability to set high but achievable goals and the ability and willingness to accept responsibility. There are four levels of maturity of subordinates which can be seen as:

unwilling and unable —LOW MATURITY
willing but unable
able but unwilling
willing and able —HIGH MATURITY

As the level of maturity of subordinates increases, appropriate leadership behavior requires less concern for production and less direction. Conversely, as the level of maturity of subordinates decreases there will be greater need for concern for production e.g., authoritative behavior and direction. For example: A high school principal has several inexperienced just out-of-college teachers. Perhaps, because of their relative inexperience in the class-room these teacher may have difficulty in dealing with routine discipline problems which might not present a problem to a "mature" teacher. In this case the administrator may show greater concern for production and behave authoritatively giving more precise directions than he would with a "mature" teacher.

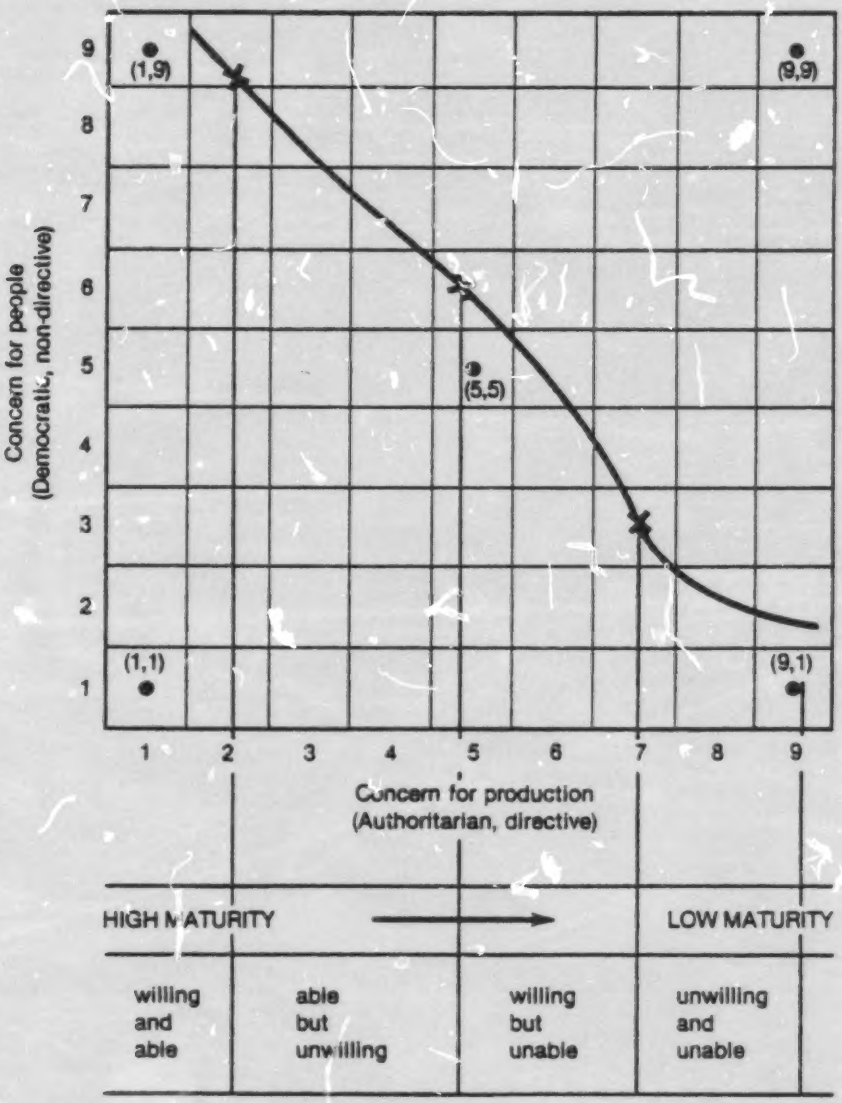

Figure 2. Leadership Behavior Based on the Managerial Grid and the Identification of the Level of Maturity of Followers (Adapted from Lester 1982).

A classroom teacher who has several student aids may want to assess their "maturity" level to identify how much direction should be given to the aid who is unwilling but able or to the one who is willing but unable

An application of this model might be made, for example, from the publication "Guidelines of Teaching Disadvantaged Students" (Sheppard and Vaughn 1977). The authors discuss the limitations which need to be considered in using peer teaching. They suggest the following:

> a. There may be a limited number of students who volunteer to be tutors. Some students who are capable of peer teaching may not wish to work with the disadvantaged student.
>
> b. If not committed to peer teaching and willing to use patience in teaching, the tutor may only make a disadvantaged student feel stupid or inferior.
>
> c. Scheduling problems may prevent students who could otherwise work in a peer teaching situation (they are) unable to meet.
>
> d. Some coordination and supervision is needed by the teacher to insure the success of peer teaching.

It is apparent that group a. identifies students who are capable, but unwilling. These students would need more direction and closer supervision from the classroom teacher primairly to avoid the situation described in b. In section c. the authors refer to a peer teacher who is willing, but unable because of time constraints. In this case the classroom teacher might show more concern for the student's problems and try to accomodate his schedule.

The administrator may show high concern for people in behaving democratically or non-directive if the subordinate has a "high maturity" level, or is willing and able. On the other hand the administrator might demonstrate greater concern for production, e.g., behave authoritatively and give more

specific directions if the subordinate has "low maturity," e.g., is unwilling and unable.

These two approaches may provide the administrator with the situational picture. By combining the grid with the identification of the maturity level of the subordinate administrators may be able to (1) identify and describe their own leadership style and (2) identify guidelines for their own leadership behavior and thereby increase their efficiency and maxiumize the utilization of human resources. This approach may also be appropriate and useful to administrators and teachers when faced with differentiated staffing patterns such as: conventional staff use; team teaching; interdisciplinary team teaching; differentiated staffing; use of instructional aides; peer tutoring; older students tutor younger students; use of volunteers; teacher role specialization; consultants, visitors, and guests.

It is beyond the scope of this paper to discuss principles and motivators involved in directing individuals who possess high or low job maturity. For the interested reader, however, Tables 1 and 2 will identify some leadership behaviors for administrators who deal with suboridinates with "high maturity" and for those with "low maturity" (Adapted from Hampton, Summer, and Webber 1973).

TABLE 1. Guidelines for Leadership Behaviors Appropriate for "High Maturity" Subordinates and Motivators (Adapted from Hampton, Summer, and Webber 1973).

High Maturity	Motivators Involved
Removing some controls while retaining accountability.	Responsibility and personal achievement.
Increasing accountability of individuals for own work.	Responsibility and recognition.
Giving a person a complete natural unit of work (module, group, and so on).	Responsibility, achievement, and recognition.
Granting additional authority to an individual in the activity; job freedom.	Responsibility, achievment, and recognition.
Making periodic reports directly available to the individual rather than the superior.	Internal recognition.
Introducing new and more difficult tasks not previously handled.	Growth and learning.
Assigning individuals specific or specialized tasks, enabling them to develop their areas of expertise.	Responsibility, growth, and advancement.

TABLE 2. Guidelines for Leadership Behavior Appropriate for "Low Maturity" vs. "High Maturity" Subordinates (Adapted from Hampton, Summer, and Webber 1973).

Low Maturity	High Maturity
Firm quotas for work production could be set each day, week, etc., using a goal which would be hard to reach.	Subject matter experts may be appointed within each group for other group members to consult with before seeking additional help.
Individuals may do all their own work including design, goal setting, and evaluation.	Individuals may take credit for all of their own work (Leader has done this up to now).
All difficult and complex tasks might be channelled to a few individuals so that the others may achieve higher output.	The work of the more experienced individual was observed less than that of others thus reducing workload of administrators/teachers.
Individuals may be assigned different task in different areas before reassignment to their own tasks.	Production was discussed in terms of "a full day's work" is expected. As time goes on this is no longer required.
	Each individual is held personally responsible for efficient use of time and instructional effectiveness.

MAJOR IMPLICATIONS FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF INSTRUCTIONALLY EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS

It has become apparent that there are a number of conceptual problems in the identification of factors which contribute to an instructionally effective school system and in clear definitions of these factors. When theoreticians and practitioners are unable to clearly distinguish between activities and behaviors classified as efficient and behaviors and activities classified as effective the resulting confusion is sometimes reflected in the behavior of administrators and subsequently on the instructional effectiveness of the school system. The human resources of the school fail to be converted into their products in a manner that is most efficient and effective. Without clear direction and guidance from the administrator teachers may be unable to do everything that is necessary to accomplish the instructional goals of the school or to achieve instructional effectiveness. Effective leadership is essential for an effective organization. The failure to systematically study leadership style, behavior, and situational variables results in endless descriptive research reports about different types of leaders. What appears more relevant, however, is a diligent and scientific analysis of what leaders do and what the results of their behaviors are in terms of effectiveness.

Because of the significance of leadership in a school system and its effect on student learning it seems necessary to provide administrators with a conceptual framework for their style of leading as well as with a framework for identifying situational factors. By identifying their leadership style, behavior, and situational factors administrators may participate in in-service training only if the training is relevant to their identified needs. Thus money and time may be saved for other priorities.

A principle which might guide or lead toward developing instructionally effective schools is the "Marshmallow Principle" which, according to Hoyt (1976), can be stated in the following manner:

> "External pressure created on an organization to change its basic structure will, for as long as that pressure is applied, cause the organization's structure to bend and assume a new shape. Once the pressure is removed, the organization will reassume its original shape. Basic change in organizational structure is accomplished only when the key functionaries within the organization make an internal commitment to change."

When the "Marshmallow Principle" is applied to that organization referred to as American education, it should be immediately apparent that it speaks to the need for internal changes in commitment among professional educators. Moreover, since this paper addressed the influence of administrative leadership on instructionally effective schools then it seems reasonable to expect such commitment to start with key school administrators and, since the great bulk of professional educators are classroom teachers, it is our firm belief that ultimately, if any basic change is to come to American education, it will grow out of changes in the professional commitments of classroom teachers. Unless that change, i.e., instructional effectiveness, can be seen in the classroom, it is not real change. Without a doubt, the challenge of developing instructionally effective schools is and will continue to dominate our efforts.

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